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ABSTRACT

A study investigated the effect of a prereading strategy on the reading comprehension of foreign language students. Subjects were 62 French students in 5 classes at 3 suburban high schools. A rotation design was used within each class. A reading in the target language was assigned twice a week for two weeks. The treatment sample went through a prereading exercise by completing in writing an anticipation guide. The control group proceeded directly into the reading. To measure comprehension, both samples answered five multiple-choice questions after each reading. Mean scores were compiled and compared. The t test indicated no significant difference in the level of comprehension of the control and treatment samples. (Author)

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The Effect of an Anticipation Guide on the Reading Comprehension of Foreign Language Students

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of a prereading strategy on the reading comprehension of foreign language students. Sixty-two French 3 students in five classes in three suburban high schools participated. A rotation design was used within each class. A reading in the target language was administered twice a week for two weeks. The treatment sample went through a prereading exercise by completing in writing an anticipation guide; the control sample proceeded directly into the reading. To measure comprehension, both samples answered five multiple choice questions after each reading. Mean scores were compiled and compared. The t test indicated that there was no significant difference in the level of comprehension between the control and treatment samples.

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Dans les premières opérations de l'esprit,
que les sens soient ses guides. Point d'autre
livre que le monde, point d'autre instruction
que les faits. L'enfant qui lit ne pense pas,
il ne fait que lire; il ne s'instruit pas,
il apprend des mots.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau, 1762

For the eighteenth century writer Rousseau, paramount to true understanding and comprehension was first-hand experience, "la leçon des choses," or the lesson of things. Rousseau's quote is an admonishment which translates as follows: "From the first operation of the mind, let the senses always be the guide. No other book than the world. No other instruction than the facts. The child who reads is not thinking, he is only reading. He is not improving his mind, he is learning words." Nearly everyone today would agree with Rousseau on the importance of experience to learning. His ideas on reading, however, seem radical but are perhaps more understandable when one puts them into the context of his time.

It was Thorndike's study over two centuries later that changed the definition of reading from accurate pronunciation of text to thinking or reasoning (Allington,

1983). Thorndike felt reading aloud encouraged or at least did nothing to discourage poor readers from saying words without actively making judgments concerning their meaning. He prescribed exercises in silent reading to find answers to questions, give a summary, or list questions the materials answered (Thorndike, 1917). Thorndike's work is regarded as highly instrumental in effecting the pedagogical change from oral to silent reading as the normal instructional activity (Allington, 1983).

Researchers have established that printed words alone do not lead to comprehension, but that they hook into networks of knowledge, or schema, in the reader's mind. Goodman (1973) stressed the need for readers to use their background knowledge, or experience, to understand printed text. Anderson (1977) suggested a person's schema greatly affects what s/he learns from interaction with language. The implication of the research to the teaching of reading is that prior knowledge should be activated to enhance comprehension. How to activate that knowledge is a matter of methodology.

Recently, attention has been focused on reading across the curriculum. At the high school level, English teachers, as well as teachers in context areas such as social studies, science, and math are expected

to guide students toward better comprehension. Foreign language teachers, particularly at the advanced levels (third and fourth year) should be considered teachers of reading. Prereading strategies aimed at accessing prior knowledge and effective in promoting comprehension of texts written in English and of English literature can also be applied to a foreign language classroom. According to Herbert (1986),

> Foreign language teachers can benefit from evaluating what reading really means and comparing first-language reading with reading in a foreign language.... Students should be able to read to themselves and understand a paragraph whose content is within their range of experience, just as they would in their first language. Reading is not just pronouncing aloud.... (p. 19)

Herbert considers linguistic and cognitive strategies an important part of the ability of high school students to read with understanding paragraphs that are at a level appropriate to their overall mastery of a foreign language.

Research on the effect of prereading strategies such as the anticipation guide in the foreign language class could have an impact on the preparation of foreign

language reading materials and the method of their presentation. Increasing comprehension should be the goal of reading instruction in the foreign language class because a child who reads is not just learning words. To Rousseau, researchers would say: "L'enfant qui lit pense; il s'instruit." The child who reads thinks; he improves his mind. Accessing the knowledge to start the thinking process is the issue to be explored.

Hypothesis

The use of an anticipation guide as preparation for reading does not improve the passage comprehension of foreign language students.

Definitions

Prereading strategy - An instructional practice used prior to a reading assignment. Its purpose is to prompt students to recall all background knowledge and experience they have concerning a topic.

Anticipation guide (also called prereading/reasoning guide)- A prereading strategy which consists of a list of statements with which the student is asked to agree or disagree

based on prior knowledge of the topic of the material to be read. Statements may be confirmed, disproved, or neither confirmed nor disproved during the reading. The student returns to the statements after the reading to mark any statement s/he wishes to reconsider based on new learning.

Procedures

Sixty-two French 3 students in five intact classes in three suburban high schools in Monmouth County participated. A rotation design was used. Within each class there was an experimental and a control sample. The samples were approximately equivalent in relevant factors (chronological age, reading scores on the standardized test used by their district, sex, general scholarship, and background in French). The experimental and control samples were rotated so that each received the treatment twice. A comparison was made of the posttest scores of the treatment and non-treatment samples.

Specifically, each student read four passages of the same difficulty and length in French. The passages were on a familiar topic, the family. The readings were administered by the classroom teacher twice a

week during the last two weeks in September. The treatment sample went through a prereading strategy by completing in writing an anticipation guide on the topic to be read. The control sample proceeded directly into the reading. Each class of students received the same oral instructions in English from their teacher. As a posttest, each sample answered in writing a set of five multiple choice questions based on each of the passages.

Results

To analyze the results, the individual scores of the treatment sample and the individual scores of the control sample were compiled. The mean scores were derived and compared using the students' t test. The findings are recorded in Table 1.

TABLE I

Comparison of Treatment and Control Sample

Sample	Mean	SD	t
Treatment	56.67	28.71	1.12
Control	60.81	30.33	

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As shown by the table, a *t* of 1.12 was computed, indicating there was no significant difference between the two samples on the measures of comprehension.

Conclusion and Implications

The use of an anticipation guide did not enhance the performance of the treatment group. In fact, in two of the three participating schools, the control sample tended to outperform the treatment sample. In the third school, the treatment sample did as well as the control. Therefore, the null hypothesis of this study cannot be rejected. The results lead to reflection in three areas: the use of the anticipation guide, the nature of the statements, and the framework in which the study was done.

First, for all participants, including the teachers, the anticipation guide was a new strategy. It may be, therefore, that the guide itself diverted the readers' attention and that, consequently, the readers focused on the prereading rather than the postreading activity.

Second, the nature of the guide should be considered. The statements were specifically designed to stimulate thinking on the topic: they were not intended as a test preview nor were any rewritten as questions

on the postreading measure. Furthermore, most statements were neither proved nor disproved in the passage. It may be that narrower, more specific statements would effect better comprehension.

Finally, this study was conducted in five different classes as an exercise apart from the daily routine and scheduled lesson. Consequently, the passages and the posttest were designed to be easily completed within 15 to 20 minutes. It is not known how an anticipation guide would affect comprehension of a lengthy passage and the results of a more comprehensive measure of comprehension. Could such an anticipatory activity positively affect performance in a specific skill area (e.g., identifying main idea, following sequence, drawing conclusions) and at what level (literal, interpretive, critical)? More research is needed to assess the value of the anticipation guide and use in promoting comprehension in the foreign language classroom.

Prereading Strategies and Comprehension in Foreign Language Reading: Related Research

Modern theories indicate that reading comprehension is not passive, receptive, and text-based, but rather active, constructive, and reader-based and that the text is a type of "blueprint" which guides readers in building their own model of what the text means (Pearson, 1985). Reading may be defined as "the process of giving significance intended by the writer to the graphic symbols by relating them to one's own fund of experience (Dechant, 1982, p. 5). That a reader's fund of experience, or prior knowledge, affects what s/he takes from the reading task has been the subject of much research.

Goodman's reference to "behind the eye" information marks a turning point in reading research; he emphasizes the importance of the information already in the reader's head to comprehension (Baruso, 1988).

In the interactive model based on the work of Rumelhart, the reader combines past experiences (concepts) with new information from the text to derive meaning. This interactive model leads to the schema theory which attempts to describe how old information combines with new ideas to enhance meaning and which views the ability to infer and the nature of inference as dependent upon the reader's prior knowledge (Collins and Cheek, 1989).

Ausubel believes that an individual's wealth of

knowledge is organized in a hierarchy of general concepts, less inclusive concepts, and specific facts (Vacca, 1977). He believes teachers can facilitate comprehension by helping students realize the context of the material to be read.

Comprehension of a text also involves both "bottom-up" and "top-down" processing. "Bottom-up" means careful decoding of the text at the word and sentence level; "top-down" means activating background and conceptual schemata to help understand the text (Carrell, 1984). Rusterholz (1986) points out that those who are beginning to read a second language engage in a disproportionate amount of "bottom-up" processing since words and sentences are the major focus of language study in the first two years. In fact, a major problem in foreign language teaching today is the transition from learning to read to reading to learn (Schulz, 1981).

According to Schulz (1983), Goodman's description of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" or cyclic process of sampling, predicting, confirming, and correcting is an integral part of finding meaning in any text and therefore applies to one's native language (L1) as well as one's second acquired language (L2). However, in most foreign language classes, the reader's approach is linear, based on the assumption

that comprehension takes place through progressive analysis of small units: the result is loss of contextual focus, overview, frustration, and the failure to hold students in literature courses.

Swaffar (1985) assesses trends in foreign language teaching and demonstrates how they have delimited and defined foreign language reading options. Student behavior such as skimming, reading on the basis of hypothesis prediction, or chunking phrases or sentences for larger meaning segments is excluded and discouraged.

Rusterholz (1986), Schulz (1983), and Swaffar (1985) all recommend instruction about prereading. Rusterholz found prereading strategies effective in improving the comprehension of her Business French college students. Schulz recommends prereading preparatory instruction and suggests using PRep as described by Langer (1981). Swaffar advocates the use of authentic texts (texts with an authentic communicative objective) and introducing them with one or two prereadings and assignments of informational detail to convince students that foreign language texts can be read for meaning and without a dictionary.

According to Sacco and Marckel (1983) reading can and should be a more widely used foreign language skill. Authentic real life reading can begin at an early

level if materials are geared to the student's prior knowledge and interest. The teacher's role includes giving prereading guidance.

Honeycutt (1982) used techniques commonly used in English classes with tenth grade third year French students. He concluded that the cloze, oral reading, and story retelling were valid measures of the reading abilities of the subjects in French. De Oliveira (1978) maintains that teaching methods used in acquiring reading skills in the mother tongue can be used for foreign language learning.

Although comprehension strategies appear to be similar in L1 and L2 learning, research does not support the assumption that good strategies transfer automatically (Schulz, 1983). A study by Clarke (1980) involving two groups of adult Spanish-speaking ESL students who had been grouped into good and poor readers in their native language found that when the foreign language task became difficult or confusing, the students reverted to poor reader strategies. The results imply that the text must be appropriate and the preparation for the reading adequate.

Both Lee (1986) and Carrell (1983) examined background knowledge and L2. Using recall in the target language as a measure of comprehension, Carrell

studied the effect of three components of background knowledge on two levels of ESL readers and one group of native English speakers. The components studied were 1) context, the presence (context) or absence (no context) of a title and picture page before reading; 2) transparency, the presence (transparent) or absence (opaque) of specific, concrete lexical items which provided clues to the content; and 3) familiarity, the presence (familiar) or absence (novel) of the reader's prior knowledge of or experience with the content of the text. She concluded that nonnative readers showed virtually no effect of background knowledge on reading, comprehension, or recall of target language passages (Lee, 1986).

Lee replicated Carrell's study with the exception of the recall procedure by testing native versus target recall of 320 Spanish students. The recall protocols written in the subjects' native language contained statistically significantly more of the passage than the recall protocols written in the subjects' target language. He found that 1) all three components of background knowledge affected the way the students read, comprehended, and recalled; 2) one component of background knowledge did not affect comprehension uniformly across the other components as

they do for L1 readers; and 3) the interaction of the three components of background knowledge was extremely complex. The learners appeared to use context (top-down processing) in relation to topic familiarity (top-down processing). Recall of the familiar topic improved with the presence of a title and picture page. Readers used semantic knowledge to interpret the topic and to comprehend the passage. Lee concluded that even "advanced" learners rely heavily on context and familiarity and transparency to derive meaning and that if L2 readers are to interact with the text in the same way L1 readers do (i.e., with each component of background knowledge acting uniformly across the others), reading at the lower levels of foreign language instruction must be taught as a skill and not simply to reinforce grammar and vocabulary.

The reading processes of L1 and L2 are similar and background knowledge promotes reading comprehension in both the native and acquired language. Students should be made aware of the knowledge they bring to the reading task.

How effective are prereading strategies? Do they facilitate access to the network of relevant associations which help transform the code into a meaningful message?

Hartley and Davies (1976) reviewed the research on four preinstructional strategies: pretests, behavioral objectives, overviews, and advance organizers. In the majority of studies preinstructional strategies did not always produce clear-cut advantages for the learner. They conclude that behavioral objectives, overviews, and advance organizers seem to have an effect on the learner; however, the advantages noted may have been due to methodological flaws or inadequacies. They point out that precise operationalization for each strategy is essential if future experiments are to be worthwhile.

Hawes (1984) examined twenty-eight studies from 1920-1987 on prereading purposes and related topics and adjunct questions. She reported conflicting results. Some researchers found that the no prereading questions group scored higher than did a prereading questions group; others found the opposite. Furthermore, some studies suggested that adults did not retain much of the passage read because prereading questions focused their attention selectively on targeted information. Hawes further reported that both Durkin and Frase felt prereading purposes should be written since oral purposes were more likely to be forgotten and thus have little effect on comprehension.

A study be Ferguson and Kennedy (1985) examined

the use of making predictions before reading and verifying them after reading. The technique, PREV (predict, silent read, eliminate false responses, and verify predictions), was used with fourth graders on a social studies selection. Scores comparing posttests to pretests showed an overall group increase and an individual group increase in 12 of the 17 scores. The researchers stated that the predicting strategy alerts the teacher to the reader's existing knowledge and makes the student aware of metacognition.

According to Pearson (1985) evidence suggests that for promoting comprehension a set of questions which includes predicting, relating text to prior knowledge, and evaluating predicted outcomes is superior to a set of more literal/factual questions.

Research studies relating specifically to foreign language do not seem to support the efficacy of traditional prereading methods, that is, the use of vocabulary lists and memorization (Zvetina, 1985). Hudson (1982), using pictures, asked focus questions on the topic of the text to be read by three levels of university ESL students. He tested this method against a vocabulary preparation and a non-preparation method. He found that beginning and intermediate readers were helped by the picture preparation, while the advanced groups benefited

most from vocabulary or non-preparation methods. Johnson (1982) found that preexposure to the definitions of difficult vocabulary generally did not affect the L2 reader's comprehension; moreover, preteaching, when combined with glossing of the same low-frequency words in a text, appeared to interfere with global comprehension.

Adams (1982) measured the effect of script activators before reading on measures of unfamiliar vocabulary in intermediate college French and English. In both the French and English groups, subjects receiving script activators before reading scored higher on measures of unfamiliar vocabulary recognition than subjects receiving no script activators.

Alvermann and Swafford (1989) did an extensive study of the research through 1986 in an attempt to answer the question "Do content strategies have a research base?" They collected data that described a strategy's effectiveness in terms of grade level, students' reading ability, type of text. The strategies receiving the most research attention were the advance organizer, graphic organizer, question placement, self-questioning, structured overview, three level guide, and use of text structure. Those receiving the least were the anticipation guide, DRA, imaging, pattern guide, and ReQuest. They found an unevenness of the research

base underlying many of the recommended practices in secondary reading. Their results underscored the idea that strategies are not simply effective or ineffective but vary in effectiveness according to the grade level and reading ability of the student and the type of text.

Bean and Peterson (1982) recommend the anticipation guide as a means for readers to identify their feelings, beliefs, and ideas about a topic. Alvermann and Swafford (1989) found the anticipation or reasoning guide to be ineffective with seventh grade students of non-specified reading ability in a social studies class. They found it effective with tenth grade students of average ability in a history class. There are no data measuring its effectiveness in a high school foreign language class.

As stated by Zvetina (1987), the research in both L1 and L2 indicates that teachers should provide readers with strategies and materials which will help them understand a text. The literature encourages L2 teachers to use a reader-centered approach to selecting passages and to choose structure and content familiar to the students and within their range of ability. As pre-reading strategies, she recommends the use of script activators and schema-inducing methods.

The transition to active, constructive, reader-based

reading comprehension has not been made in the foreign language class. The question of reading for meaning is being addressed in the literature. Foreign language teachers can benefit from the research done in L1 as well as in L2. Prereading strategies that activate background knowledge and encourage students to bring experience and therefore meaning to the text are being explored. The research base for these strategies is not complete. The foreign language classroom can be the laboratory for experimentation and a source of input because foreign language teachers are teachers of reading.

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Appendix

Instructions for the Classroom Teacher

Please read the following instructions to the students.

Today, you will be participating in the first* of a four-part activity on second language reading.

You will receive a passage to read in French. In some cases, the passage will be preceded by an Anticipation Guide, or series of statements to be considered before the reading. If your passage does not contain these, read the passage and answer the questions on the page which follows.

If your passage begins with the Anticipation Guide, read the statements, reflect, then check the column which indicates whether you agree (OUI) or disagree (NON) with the statements. Some of the statements will be confirmed by the reading, some disproved, some neither confirmed nor disproved. After completing the Anticipation Guide, please read the passage.

You are all to read the passage once, as naturally as possible. Then, answer all the multiple choice questions on the page which follows the passage WITHOUT REFERRING BACK to the passage.

Those of you who have completed the Anticipation Guide may return to the statements to mark any you wish to reconsider after completing the multiple choice questions.

When you have finished the exercise, please turn your papers over and wait for me to collect them.

* second, third, fourth

Guide d'anticipation

Avant de lire le passage, lisez les 5 phrases en dessous. Etes-vous d'accord avec les phrases? Cochez (✓) Oui ou Non de la Colonne A. Si vous voulez changer vos réponses après avoir lu le passage, cochez Oui ou Non de la Colonne B.

A			B	
OUI	NON		OUI	NON
___	___	1. La famille française est plus liée (closely-knit) que la famille américaine.	___	___
___	___	2. Le dialogue entre les teenagers américains et leurs parents est plus franc et plus fréquent que le dialogue entre les teenagers français et leurs parents.	___	___
___	___	3. On s'amuse plus en famille aux Etats-Unis qu'en France.	___	___
___	___	4. Concernant l'affection familiale, les Français sont plus réservés que les Americains.	___	___
___	___	5. Les Français sont célèbres pour leur hospitalité.	___	___

En France, la famille est l'unité sociale. Pourtant, beaucoup de forces s'attaquent à cette unité, surtout dans les régions industrielles et dans les grandes villes. En général, la famille d'aujourd'hui n'a pas la même cohésion que la famille du passé. On peut toujours trouver les familles traditionnelles et très unies (united), mais on trouve de plus en plus des familles modernes et même, parfois, des familles désunies.

Le centre de la vie familiale est le foyer, ou la maison. Un étranger aimerait voir la famille française chez elle, mais on n'est pas permis. Les Français sont sociables dans la rue ou au café, oui; mais chez eux, non. Un Américain invite chez lui souvent une personne qu'il connaît depuis peu de temps et la reçoit avec simplicité. En France, on ne respecte pas les maisons ou la porte est toujours ouverte. Un Français reçoit un invité avec cérémonie, et il lui prépare un repas élégant. Ensuite, il s'enferme dans sa forteresse pour des semaines!

Cependant, pour les parents, c'est différent. Une vieille tante peut y entrer, dormir, manger, rester aussi longtemps qu'elle le désire. Il y a aussi les grandes réunions familiales pour les fêtes comme les baptêmes, les premières communions, et les mariages. On parle des souvenirs du passé, on note qui est présent et qui est absent: on célèbre le culte du clan.

Les membres de la famille vivent dans un cadre (setting) intime. La famille est ensemble non seulement au dîner, mais aussi au déjeuner, qui est plus important que le "lunch" américain. Les contacts et le dialogue entre parents et enfants sont donc fréquents, et marqués par le respect et l'affection. La mère aime caresser ses enfants et leur dire des mots tendres. Elle encourage ses enfants à montrer leur affection en disant: "Embrasse ta maman. Donne-moi un gros baiser."

--adapté de "La famille," La France actuelle

Première lecture: Choisissez la réponse correcte. Mettez la lettre de la réponse correcte dans la colonne à gauche. Basez vos réponses sur la lecture.

_____1. L'idée principale de ce passage c'est que
a. la famille française n'a pas la même cohésion que dans le passé.
b. la famille française traditionnelle est très unie.
c. la famille française est plus importante que l'état.
d. la famille française devient de plus en plus désunie.

_____2. L'unité sociale en France est
a. l'individu
b. la famille
c. la ville
d. l'état

_____3. Pourquoi les étrangers ne sont-ils pas permis d'entrer chez les Français?
a. les Français ne sont pas sociables.
b. la maison française est fermée à tout le monde.
c. la maison française est généralement réservée pour la famille.
d. l'hospitalité coûte cher.

_____4. Pourquoi un Français offre-t-il la pension à une vieille tante?
a. Il veut hériter son argent.
b. Il n'y a pas de maisons de repos pour les vieilles en France.
c. C'est à cause de sa religion.
d. C'est sa responsabilité.

_____5. Qu'est-ce qui <u>ne</u> caracterise <u>pas</u> la famille en France.
a. le respect
b. l'affection
c. le dialogue
d. la liberté

Si vous avez une guide d'anticipation et vous voulez changez une réponse, vous pouvez réviser <u>maintentant</u>.

Guide d'anticipation

Avant de lire le passage, lisez les 5 phrases en dessous. Etes-vous d'accord avec les phrases? Cochez (✓) Oui ou Non de la Colonne A. Si vous voulez changer vos réponses après avoir lu le passage, cochez Oui ou Non de la Colonne B.

A			B	
OUI	NON		OUI	NON
___	___	1. La mère française a plus de responsabilités à la maison que la mère américaine.	___	___
___	___	2. Le père français est le symbole de l'autorité.	___	___
___	___	3. Les enfants français se conduisent (behave) mieux que les enfants américains.	___	___
___	___	4. La discipline est sévère et rigide dans la famille française.	___	___
___	___	5. Les jeunes français n'ont pas de liberté personelle.	___	___

Le père français est le chef de la maison, mais il n'est pas tyran. Il ne fait pas le ménage, ne lave pas la vaisselle, ne change pas les couches de Bébé: il gagne le pain de la famille et assure l'éducation des enfants. La mère est la maîtresse de la maison et une bonne maman. Elle est patiente et stoïque, et elle fait fidèlement son travail. La maison est propre et bien rangée. Elle sait faire une robe et dépenser prudemment l'argent de la famille.

Les parents français élèvent leurs enfants "à la dure" mais avec affection. L'enfant apprend à un tendre âge qu'on n'obtient rien dans la vie sans effort, et que tout excès se paie. L'enfant doit tolérer sans rien dire le froid, le chaud, la soif, la faim, la fatigue, et même la douleur. Il doit manger tout ce qui est sur son assiette, pousser la nourriture avec le pain (et non avec les doigts), se tenir droit sur sa chaise, aller jouer quand il y a des invités. Quand un enfant est sage et fait bien, on lui donne des bonbons ou des biscuits. Pour lui faire peur, Papa ou Maman lui parle du grand méchant loup, du gendarme, ou du martinet. L'enfant est puni selon la gravité de "son crime."

L'éducation de l'enfant consiste de la discipline formelle et de la discipline du travail. Très jeune, les enfants apprennent à aider maman avec le petit frère, à faire les courses, à préparer les légumes pour le dîner. Quand tout est fait, l'enfant peut aller jouer. Mais sa liberté est limitée. Certains jeux et certains copains ne sont pas permis. C'est à 15 ou 16 ans que l'indépendance commence. Les garçons peuvent sortir sans rien dire et les filles peuvent se maquiller. Chaque mois, ils reçoivent l'argent de poche. Si le garçon ou la fille travaille, ils rapportent l'argent à la maison.

adapté de "La famille," <u>La France actuelle</u>

Deuxième lecture: Choisissez la réponse correcte. Mettez la lettre de la réponse dans la colonne à gauche. Basez vos réponses sur la lecture.

_____1. Ce passage est une description
a. de la famille française du passé
b. de la famille française stéréotypée
c. des problèmes de la famille française
d. d'une famille assez moderne

_____2. Qui est le chef de la famille française?
a. Papa
b. Maman
c. L'enfant
d. Papa et Maman

_____3. Indiquez ce qui est <u>vrai</u> selon l'article.
a. C'est Maman seule qui s'occupe de la discipline.
b. Papa travaille plus dur que Maman.
c. Il n'y a jamais de disputes dans une famille française.
d. Chaque membre de la famille joue un rôle bien défini.

_____4. L'enfant français
a. obéit toujours
b. désobeit de temps en temps
c. est égoïste
d. n'a pas le temps de jouer

_____5. A quel âge est-ce que l'indépendance commence pour les jeunes français?
a. au moment de leur naissance
b. jamais
c. après que l'on a le diplôme
d. à 15 ou 16 ans

Guide d'anticipation

Avant de lire le passage, lisez les 5 phrases en dessous. Etes-vous d'accord avec les phrases? Cochez (✓) Oui ou Non de la Colonne A. Si vous voulez changer vos réponses <u>après avoir lu</u> le passage, cochez Oui ou Non de la Colonne B.

A			B	
OUI	NON		OUI	NON
___	___	1. On trouve beaucoup de petites maisons individuelles dans les grandes villes françaises.	___	___
___	___	2. Les Français préfèrent habiter en ville plutôt qu'habiter en province.	___	___
___	___	3. La France est un pays industrialisé.	___	___
___	___	4. Le rythme de la vie dans les villes françaises est rapide.	___	___
___	___	5. Il n'y a pas beaucoup de circulation sur les routes françaises.		

Avec le développement de l'industrie, la population urbaine en France devient de plus en plus grande. Aux Etats-Unis, on construit des maisons individuelles; en France, non. La construction, le terrain, et le financement coûtent trop cher pour la famille moyenne française. On a donc construit des immeubles d'appartements à l'intérieur des villes.

Les appartements sont fonctionnels et bien équipés; mais les pièces sont très petites. En plus, on peut entendre la radio, les conversations, et les disputes des voisins. La famille se sent isolée dans son nouvel appartement bien que (although) des centaines d'autres familles habitent dans le même immeuble. La majorité des familles vont chez des parents en province quand ils ont les jours de congé.

La famille est menacée par le rythme de la vie moderne. L'homme d'affaires prend les déjeuners d'affaires au restaurant et rentre tard le soir. L'ouvrier part de bonne heure le matin parce que son usine est loin de son appartement. Il ne peut pas rentrer pour le déjeuner. La mère travaille aussi. Les enfants doivent prendre leur déjeuner à la cantine de l'école.

Le soir, réunis au foyer, Maman et Papa sont bien fatigués. Ils veulent une chose: la paix. Les enfants ont toujours de l'énergie après une journée à l'école. Alors, ils sont envoyés en dehors ou ils jouent dans la rue.

Le dîner n'est pas le moment de communication non plus. C'est un repas de silence ponctué de remarques brèves. S'il y a un téléviseur, on ne dit rien du tout. On est hypnotisé par l'image.

Le dimanche, si la famille a une voiture, toute la famille s'y met pour faire une promenade. Le trajet est long parce qu'il y beaucoup de circulation. Arrivée à destination, la famille trouve des milliers d'autres familles. L'intimité n'est pas possible.

---adapté de "La famille," La France actuelle

Troisieme lecture: Choisissez la répense correcte. Mettez la lettre de la répense dans la colonne à gauche. Basez vos réponses sur la lecture.

_____1. Quelle est l'idée principale de ce passage?
a. La vie en France est en train de changer.
b. La vie en France est comme la vie aux Etats-Unis.
c. Il n'y a pas de maisons individuelles dans les centres urbains en France.
d. Les Français d'aujourd'hui sont fatigués.

_____2. Indiquez ce qui n'est pas vrai concernant les appartements. Ils sont
a. bien équipés
b. fonctionnels
c. assez petits
d. bien chers

_____3. Comparée au passé, la famille française n'a pas assez
a. d'argent pour les nécessités
b. de temps pour la communication
c. d'objets de confort
d. de voisins

_____4. Pourquoi l'intimité n'est-elle pas possible?
a. Il y beaucoup de monde dans les villes.
b. On ne se réunit jamais au foyer
c. On ne mange plus ensemble
d. On travaille tout le temps.

_____5. Pourquoi est-ce que la population urbaine habite des appartements?
a. La population devient de plus en plus grande.
b. Il n'y a pas assez de terrain pour des maisons.
c. On préfère les appartements
d. La construction, le terrain, et le financement coûtent trop cher.

Guide d'anticipation

Avant de lire le passage, lisez les 5 phrases en dessous. Etes-vous d'accord avec les phrases? Cochez (✓) Oui ou Non de la Colonne A. Si vous voulez changer vos réponses après avoir lu le passage, cochez Oui ou Non de la Colonne B.

A			B	
OUI	NON		OUI	NON
___	___	1. Il y a rarement de la dissension dans la famille française.	___	___
___	___	2. Comparée au passé, la vie de la mère française est facile.	___	___
___	___	3. Les familles françaises ont les mêmes problèmes que les familles américaines.	___	___
___	___	4. Les Français n'achètent pas à crédit.	___	___
___	___	5. Papa contrôle l'argent de la famille française.	___	___

Il y a souvent de la tension dans la famille française moderne. On habite dans un immeuble où il y a trop de monde. On est fatigué par le travail dans l'industrie ou dans le monde d'affaires et par le "voyage" de la résidence au travail. Il n'y a pas assez d'espace et il n'y a pas assez de temps pour une vie normale. Les enfants profitent de cet état et sont libérés de l'autorité des parents plus rapidement que dans le passé. Le père est toujours le chef officiel de la famille, mais au premier du mois, il donne sa paie à sa femme après avoir pris une petite somme comme argent de poche. Et de temps en temps, il est obligé de faire la vaisselle. Maintenant, c'est Maman et pas Papa qui est chargée de l'éducation des enfants.

Maman contrôle l'argent de la famille. C'est elle qui porte la culotte. Mais elle est aussi fatiguée à cause de la vie moderne. Son travail à la maison est plus facile qu'autrefois parce qu'elle a maintenant un frigidaire et une machine à laver. Mais elle ne réussit pas à ranger sa vaisselle dans les placards qui sont trop petits. Elle n'a pas toujours le temps de préparer un bon repas parce qu'elle aussi, elle a un job. Elle s'inquiète en ce qui concerne les finances--et parfois, elle achète à crédit.

Elle permet à ses enfants de faire ce qu'ils veulent. Elle désire la paix. Comme Papa, quand elle est irritée, elle n'hésite pas à distribuer les gifles (slaps). Mais, elle veut <u>tout</u> donner à ses enfants. Elle veut assurer leur bonheur. Papa, de sa part, veut faire de son fils un homme.

Par conséquence, dans la famille moderne, l'enfant est roi. En presence d'un père féminisé et d'une mère virilisée, l'enfant ne sait plus à qui obéir. Il se permet de "répondre" à ses parents. Il est mal élevé.

Cette perspective est très sombre, mais heureusement, le nombre de familles désunies et des délinquants juveniles est très limité.

--adapté de "La famille," <u>La France actuelle</u>

Quatrième lecture: Choisissez la réponse correcte. Mettez la lettre de la réponse dans la colonne à gauche. Basez vos réponses sur la lecture.

_____1. Quel est le meilleur titre pour ce passage?
a. "Des problèmes de la famille française moderne"
b. "Le rôle de la femme dans la famille française d'aujourd'hui"
c. "Les enfants français dans le monde moderne"
d. "Le budget familial français"

_____2. Pourquoi Papa fait-il la vaisselle de temps en temps?
a. Il n'y a pas de lave vaisselle dans l'appartement.
b. Maman profite de la libération féminine.
c. En réalité, Papa aime faire la vaisselle.
d. Le rôle de Papa change.

_____3. Pourquoi Maman est-elle fatiguée?
a. Les enfants sont difficiles.
b. Elle a plus de responsabilités que dans le passé.
c. Elle passe beaucoup de temps à préparer le dîner.
d. Elle n'aime pas la vie en ville.

_____4. Dans la famille moderne en France, qui est roi?
a. le père
b. la mère
c. l'enfant
d. personne

_____5. Il y a souvent de la tension dans les familles françaises qui habitent les grandes villes parce
a. que les enfants ne savent pas à qui obéir.
b. qu'il n'y a ni assez de temps ni assez d'espace pour une vie normale.
c. des délinquants juvéniles sont nombreux.
d. Maman et Papa ne se mettent pas d'accord à l'égard de la discipline.